LIBRARY

VOLUME V NUMBER 5

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

JANUARY, 1905

BEDALES SCHOOL, PETERSFIELD, ENGLAND

J. H. BADLEY
Head Master, Bedales School

I am asked to contribute to the pages of the *Elementary School Teacher* a short description of my school as now working at the close of the twelfth year of its existence and the fourth since we moved into our new quarters — planned and built for the purpose — at Petersfield. It is a pleasure to accept this opportunity of speaking to teachers among whom I have found many friends, in a country where education is studied and practiced with such enthusiasm and such readiness to follow out principles to their logical conclusion in practice; and I cannot begin without saying how much I feel we owe to American inspiration and example, even though our problems here are so different that in some respects we may seem to be following different lines. For example, it must not be forgotten that in England class distinctions are so deeply ingrained that, however much we may wish to break down these barriers in education, it is at present practically impossible to do so; and that, just as the so-called public schools represent the educational ideal of one social class, so there are various other grades of schools representing different grades of middle-class education, varying according to the scale of fees and the age at which the majority of the pupils leave the school. In order, therefore, to gain any clear idea of an English school, it is necessary first to know to which of these grades it belongs. And this is not in any way a question of its size or age, but of the class from which it draws

its pupils, and the length and purpose of its educational course. From this point of view Bedales may be reckoned along with the English public schools, with this proviso that, in respect both of purpose and of cost, it appeals rather to the professional and business man and manufacturer than to the moneyed, landed, and aristocratic classes that support the greater public schools; and the course of training here given is intended for those who will earn their own living in similar professions — in most cases after a further course at the university or technical college. The school is, therefore, intended for those who will later on be leaders, either in their own private concerns or in a more public capacity, and for those only who will be able to remain at school until seventeen or eighteen, or even longer, before they actually begin the special training of their profession.

In the second place, it must be remembered that such schools in England are usually boarding schools, drawing their pupils, not from the locality in which they are, but from all parts of the country. This fact has set its stamp, whether for good or ill, on English education. There is, no doubt, much to be said against it; but, on the other hand, it need hardly be pointed out that it adds immensely to the opportunities of the educator who realizes that school is a place for the training of habit and of character no less than of mind; and, further, that it is at the present time, in most cases, a necessity, if children are to be brought up in the country rather than the town — a point, the importance of which it seems to me hardly possible to overrate.

We start, then, from these conditions. Bedales is a boarding school, in the open country, numbering some one hundred and fifty boys and girls, most of whom will remain at school till the age of seventeen, eighteen, or even nineteen, and then receive some further course of professional training, and most of whom will in the end have some share in the direction of the lives of others. Of other conditions and vexed questions in English education at the present time I say nothing, because we are here happily free from them, being unhampered by any external authority. The school is free to follow its own aims in its own way. As long as parents continue to send their children here, we

have nothing else to consider than the good of the children and the needs of the time. And though we ask for inspection by other educational bodies and by the government, we are in no way under any external or government control. In fact, one may regard Bedales as an educational laboratory for testing principles and their applications in various methods. But this must not be taken to mean that the school has no definite principles and no fixed aim. It represents the attempt to work out in practice a complete and all-sided educational course, subject to the conditions already laid down, of which I need say no more.

But we have stood long enough on the doorstep explaining what the school is. Let us go inside and see what is doing. We enter a quadrangle, partly roofed to serve as a play-ground and drill-ground for bad weather, partly open to the sky so as to admit the outer air freely to classrooms and living-rooms, all of which open on to the cloisters that surround it. If it is an interval between classes, this quadrangle will be alive with noise and movement, and you may have to dodge the flying balls; but now the players are streaming off to the various classrooms, and we will follow them. Some classrooms, you see, have numbers on the doors; these are the "form-rooms" of the junior classes, not only for work, but in free-time as well. Others have names on them; these belong to the teachers of special subjects, to whom the senior classes come at their allotted hours. We will look into one and another as they chance to come. Here are some juniors discovering the center of gravity of cards of various shapes by hanging them up. Here again are some plotting the curve represented by an algebraic equation. Here they are learning how to set to work to translate a Latin book; the master is "preparing" it with them, getting from them their suggestions and discoveries, and keeping them on the track. And is this a game going on in the next room we enter? Yes, a game of "Tell me what I have thought of," but all in French. They have just guessed the object, and now comes a French song before they go. This is the library, and here, when we look in, are several of the older boys and girls at the various tables, preparing work by themselves. And this is the physical laboratory, in which a senior class is at work dis-

covering for themselves the principles of mechanics, with the help of apparatus mostly made in the school workshop. Two things will probably have struck you in all these classes: first, that the rooms are small — for classes number only twelve to fifteen in each — and that all are bright and clean, with pleasant-colored walls and plenty of pictures — for they are not used for class work only — and with beautiful views of the Downs from all the windows. We believe, as you see, in the *unconscious* influence of the child's surroundings, buildings and works of art, and the beauties of nature; and, secondly, that in all the work there is very little teaching in the old sense of "telling," but a great deal of discovering for themselves. Initiative, the power of tackling problems as they arise, we regard as of more value than book-knowledge. Our part, therefore, is not to lecture or to demonstrate at the blackboard, but to start problems and let the children demonstrate to each other and to us.

But you have probably seen enough of such work by now. Let us go back to the quadrangle — noticing on the way the board on which the weather records for the month are entered graphically by certain juniors each morning in rotation — and see the clothes inspection going on; for boys as well as girls have to learn to look after their clothes to some extent, and at least to keep them clean and tidy. Then we will go over to the gymnasium to see the class there at their Swedish drill; and look in at the girls' house on the way at the juniors' sewing class, in which you will not be surprised, I hope, to find boys sewing with the girls; for in the earlier stages at least we want to make no needless distinction, but let the boys share the sewing and cooking, and the girls the wood-work, though later on they will take different lines.

And now the morning classes are over, and when we get back we shall find boys and girls lined up for dinner inspection, while the prefects see that hands are clean and hair brushed. The gong rings, and all file into the hall, where we will follow. They sit, you see, by age, at the different tables, boys and girls together, with a member of the staff at each table in turn for a week. No rule of silence here; and by the time the meal is over you will be

A CLOTHES INSPECTION

TAKING A WEATHER READING

able to judge how far the healthy freedom we aim at is attained. Now they go off to change into their outdoor dress, as they must every afternoon, whether for games or manual work. Today is a "whole-school" day, so presently we shall find them scattered over the whole estate, at different kinds of work. Some are in the studio doing free-arm work on the blackboard, or making brush-work studies of plants to be used afterward for design, or drawing from the cast. Others are in the workshop, making a scale drawing of the joint or object they are then to make in wood. Others again are in the forge, for some new fencing, perhaps, has to be made for the poultry run. Some are at work in the school garden or orchard; others over at the farm doing the dairy work in their turn. Some are down shooting on the rifle range; some are surveying a part of the playing-fields where leveling is needed. The games captain you may find driving the horse roller to get the ground ready for the match tomorrow, while others are busy putting up a new wire fence to keep the cattle off it. Some are building a store-shed, or finishing off the roof of the dressing-shed around the new open-air swimming-bath. And this is the afternoon when the older girls are having their cooking lesson, preparing the evening meal for the staff.[1]

And now it is tea time, and all are changed back into their house clothes. The hall looks emptier, for the staff is away enjoying, let us hope, the meal you saw being cooked, and the prefects sit around at the tables in their place. After tea there is an hour's class — this is the time given each day throughout the school to history and literature; then singing, in which all take part together in the hall — just now they are taking Stanford's "Revenge" — followed by half an hour's quiet reading; and then they separate for various occupations. Some of the older will put in another hour's work; but most will be doing bookbinding or carving, or some other chosen handicraft; or it may be the evening when the various school societies meet, and you can listen to their papers or debates, or look on at the fencing, or find

[1] It must not, of course, be supposed that everything here mentioned can be seen going on *at the same time* on any one day. I have brought together, to form a "specimen day," various things that I happen to have seen at one time or another during the past week.

the hall cleared for dancing; or, if it chances to be one of the monthly "merry evenings," we shall all meet there for recitations, songs, readings, or perhaps a home-made play. But by half-past eight the boys in charge have arranged the hall for prayers; we all join in a brief service, there is a handshaking all around, and the day is over. The girls go back to their own house, the boys go up to their dormitories; and you may like to come into my study for a little and question me as to the meaning of all you have seen.

It means, as I said just now, an attempt to give a complete and all-sided education, in which equal importance shall be given to the training of body, mind, and character. A few words, then, as to the plan on which we work with regard to each of these.

The training of the body is not only a matter of physical drill, nor even of those outdoor games and sports that play so large a part — too large a part, perhaps — in our modern schemes of education. These have their place, especially if they are not confined to two or three games like cricket and football, hockey and tennis, however good; but include also swimming, and such sports as boxing, fencing, etc., which furnish so admirable a training for other qualities besides the skill of hand and eye they require. But all these things may be overdone, until play becomes enthroned in the mind as a more desirable object in life than work, and even leads to contempt for other forms of manual skill. For this reason, no less than for the healthy training both of body and mind, there must be a large amount of time that would otherwise be spent in games given to various forms of manual training, whether in wood or metal workshop, in garden or on farm. To such work we assign at least two afternoons each week, and do not let games monopolize all the time set apart for outdoor exercise. But apart from such definite physical training, even more importance we believe attaches to all the every-day matters of hygiene, such as food, clothing, short and varied hours of work, and work in the open air, fresh air indoors no less than out, the freedom of life in the country — in a word, the practical teaching of hygiene in the habits of life no less than in the classroom. With this object the buildings are planned and the time-table arranged — with considerable difference, I need

FREE-TIME OCCUPATION — BOOKBINDING

IN THE SMITHY

hardly say, between the length of working hours for younger and older, as well as between the kind of work done at different stages of development.

To this we may now turn. The fact that we are not bound by any external scheme leaves us free not only to employ in the classroom whatever methods we may think best, and to carry on experiments in teaching, but also to make the attempt to plan a complete course unaffected — at least until the final stage — by external requirements of public examinations. In this way we can refuse to allow what seems to us premature specialization in any direction; and though for most the external examination must come in the end, we do not allow it to affect our work until all have been through the general course that we think necessary for the training of the various activities of a human being, as distinct from the special requirements of the later career. Up to the age of sixteen, therefore, or fifteen at the earliest — for development is not always directly according to age — all follow the same general course, from the kindergarten on; but after this point is reached, we leave it to personal bent, which by then should have discovered itself, and the choice of the career, to decide the special lines of work to be followed in preparation for the coming special training, technical or professional, whatever it may be. It will not be possible to do more than give an outline of the work done during these two stages. The earlier or general course, in which there is little or no option, comprises the following subjects:

1. Language: the mother-tongue, one modern language, and — from the age of twelve — a four-year course of Latin.

2. What may be called the humanities *par excellence:* history, first of our own country, then of classical times; literature linked with and, as far as possible, corresponding to the history; and geography.

3. Science, beginning with nature-study in the garden and fields, and the science of every-day life, connected again with the classes in cooking and hygiene, and so leading to the more systematic study of physics and chemistry.

4. Mathematics, taught not merely for commercial utility, but rather as a training subject, and based largely on practical measurement.

5. Manual work, including, for all, various branches of art work, a course of wood-work and of gardening, and, at one stage or another, such things as cooking, sewing, dairy work, the care of poultry and bees, etc.

6. And, lastly, music, in the form of classes in sight-reading, etc., and daily singing for all.

I am tempted to stop here and fill in this outline, for there is much that might be said, both as to the reasons for including so wide a range of subjects, and the proportional time given to each, in order to escape the many-headed Scylla of unwise dissipation of energy in obtaining a smattering of many things, without falling into the Charybdis of over-pressure and an overcrowded time-table. But to do this would require a treatise, and I must pass on.

So much, then, for the general course. After the age of fifteen or sixteen, as said above, the special lines of work are largely optional and examination requirements are considered. Thus, for instance, the main course followed may be classical, with Greek in place of science; or modern, with Latin giving place to German; or special lines in science may be followed — metal-work, for example — and mechanical drawing being taken as preparatory for the technical training of the engineer; or more time may be given to practical work in workshop or on farm, or in domestic economy or art; and due preparation made in each case for matriculation and other examinations necessary for entering on the further stage when school is left. But whatever the special lines followed, in all cases some common work is still done, especially in modern history and literature — the necessary elements, as we think, to broaden and harmonize all branches of training.

Before leaving the subject of mental training, a few words must be added on two points. It has just been said that we take no kind of external examinations until the final stage is reached. But examinations have their use for the pupil, and, still more, for the teacher, if they are true tests, well applied. Each year, therefore, we ask some university or some educationalist of note to inspect the work of the school and to conduct an examination in

IN THE DAIRY

TAKING CONTOUR LEVEL

CLASS IN COOKING

LAYING OUT A NEW GARDEN

concert with ourselves. By this means we insure that the children are tested in work they have actually done; and, while we do not have to conform our course to any other standard, at the same time we get an impartial judgment upon the work done and its results. The other point is one that specially concerns the boarding school — the provision of occupation for leisure time and the encouragement of hobbies that may become the pursuits of a lifetime. With us, times are set apart, especially in the evening, for reading and music, for handicrafts of various kinds, for dancing and lectures and debates, and for the meeting of societies classical, scientific, etc.; and the summer half-holidays in particular for expeditions in pursuit of interests in natural history, archæology, and so forth, for which we are here particularly well placed, in a country studded with relics of the Roman occupation, and within easy reach on one side of Saxon Alfred's capital, and on another of the home of Gilbert White. But however much I should like to emphasize the value of such interests, the by-products of a real education, here again I must not linger, for I have yet to say something about the means of character-training.

All educators are agreed that this is not so much a matter of precept as of habit; it depends on the child's environment, on the daily routine of his life, the rules that he has to obey — let me say in passing that they must be as simple as possible, and the main reasons for the keeping of them made plain to all — and still more, I think, on the opportunities given for self-government, and the constant claim that he shall not only obey rules, but act upon his own responsibility. Of one part of this environment, as I have called it, of the daily life at Bedales I need say little to American teachers, to whom coeducation is a familiar fact. Here we are only carrying it a step farther in making it one of the factors in the life of a boarding school — where, as I venture to think, the good results are even more certain, owing to the still closer and more constant intercourse, and the difficulties much less than is commonly supposed. Not that there are none. But, if, as we believe in this country, the life of the boarding school, with its freedom of self-government on the one side, and on the other its countless opportunities for bringing influence to bear on the indi-

vidual, affords a fine training-ground for character, it is all the more so when boy and girl have to work out their problems together, and when among the influences at work are ideals and traditions that broaden the outlook and touch the conduct of either sex.

A word too about religion, as taught at Bedales. Of the teaching of forms and creeds there is nothing, nor is any comer rejected on religious grounds. In questions of private belief and forms of worship each is free to do as he has been taught at home; only he must learn the practical lesson of toleration of those who think and worship differently. In our own religious gatherings we neither wish to teach one creed nor to undermine belief in another; but to show that, whatever the outward differences, there is something beneath each that is common to all, and that this, as shown in the daily life, is the main thing that concerns us all alike. And especially we try to bring all to see and grasp, according to their ability, the opportunities of social service of which school life is so full, and which, to my thinking, are the best of all that a school has to offer. But this side of our work it is not easy — least of all for one engaged in it — to describe; any more than it is easy to gauge its results, for the greater part lie beyond the school. Our hope is that the life lived here will not end when the school days end; and that foremost among the lessons here learned and carried away will be that summed up in our school motto: "Work of each for weal of all."

I feel that the above brief outline can give but a confused impression of what we are trying to do at Bedales. Let me, however, add that if any into whose hands this may fall wish to make closer acquaintance with the school, I hope that if ever they are in this country, they will find their way to Petersfield. They may be sure they will be welcome. Few things have given us more pleasure in our work here than the interest taken in it by others, and the links it has established for us with fellow-workers in other lands, and especially in the one where education is most believed in, and therefore is most living.

A MORNING EXERCISE

THIRD GRADE — FRANCIS W. PARKER SCHOOL

PEARL I. BACKUS
Third-Grade Teacher

The following reports were given by the children of the third grade at morning exercises. They are the outgrowth of a year's work in the study of the history of Chicago, and illustrate one phase of the development of transportation.

Last year the third grade studied about early Chicago, and the different ways of traveling in the early days. We decided to make a train of cars in the sloyd shop. We chose the cars because they are made just outside of the city, and because Chicago is such a very large railroad center, and because going by train is the most rapid way of traveling.

The reason we did not make a passenger train, is because there is so much shipping and commerce going on in the city, and the passenger cars are too hard to make.

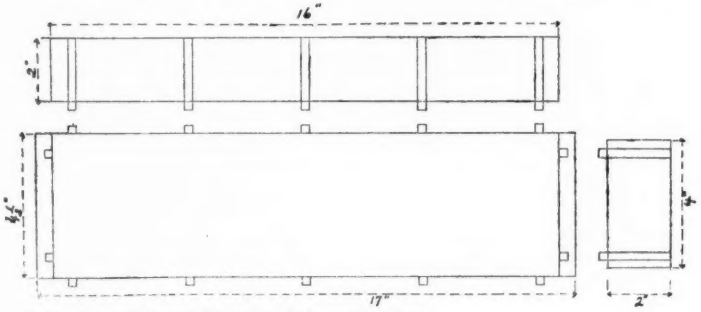
We also made plans for the truck, the wheels, and the track. We thought it would be nice to give the cars to the kindergarten children.

JOSEPHINE PALMER.

We did not go to the carshops to measure the cars, as we had all seen freight cars, and we had a good book[1] with pictures and measurements given.

Each child used the book and selected the car he liked the best. I chose the coal car. It was 34 feet long. We decided upon the scale to use in making the cars. We first thought we would make them 1 inch to 1 foot, but 34 inches would make them too long. Then we thought that ½ inch to 1 foot would be better.

This is the plan of my car. HELEN STAUFFER.

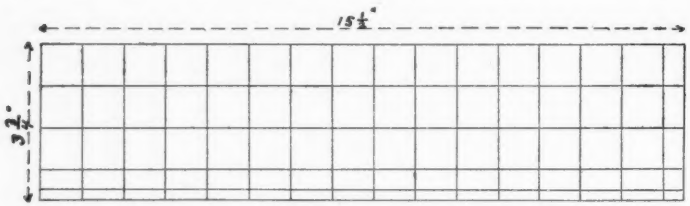


[1] American Car and Foundry Co.'s publication.

Two people worked on a car. If each child made one car, there would be too many cars, and we would not get them finished. One worked at the sides and floor; the other one made the ends, the top, and the running-board. We put two coats of paint on them. One child put on one coat of paint, and the other put on the last coat. We grooved the sides and ends with a carving tool to make it look like boards running up and down. We used large staple tacks for the steps. We named each car and planned the lettering. We called the cars the "F.W.P. Fast Freight."

MILDRED ZENOS.

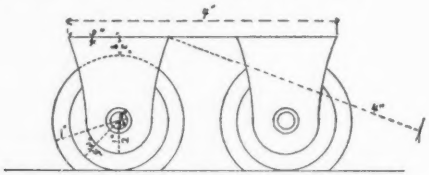
We wanted to know the capacity of our cars. We used inside measurements. The box car is 18½ inches long, 4 inches wide, and 3 inches high. I made a drawing of the floor of the car. We used 1-inch cubes to see how many cubic inches there were in one layer. We found 74 cubic inches. In three layers there were 222 cubic inches.



I made a drawing of the floor of the coal car too. In the first layer there were 58⅛ cubic inches. In two layers there were 116¼ cubic inches.

FRIEDA MAYNARD.

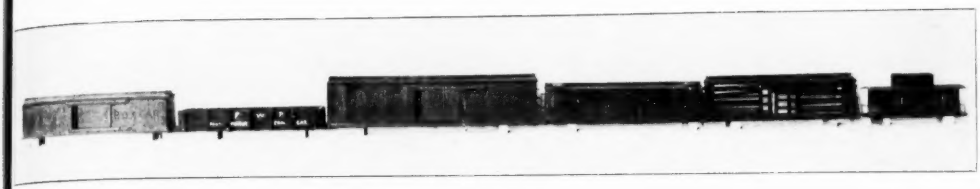
When we made the wheels we used the same scale that we did in making the cars, only we made the flange bigger. The reason we did this is because the little cars are not heavy enough to stay on the track.

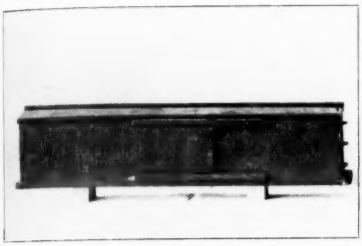


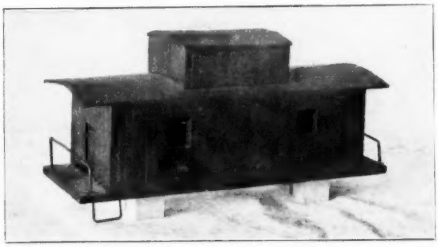
I made a model of the wheels on the lathe. Here is the plan of my wheels.

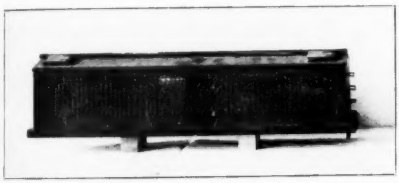
FRANK PACKARD.

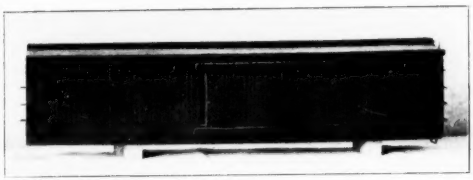
How we made our wheels: We wanted to have iron wheels for our cars, but we could not make them. We used Frank's wooden model for casting wheels in lead because we wanted to know how they cast large wheels. We

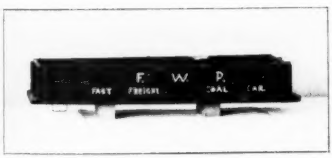


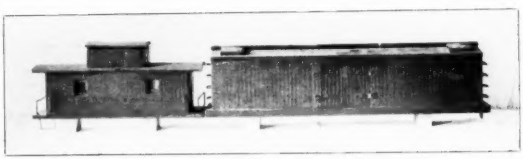


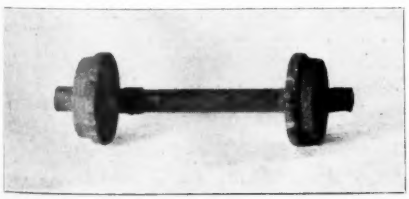


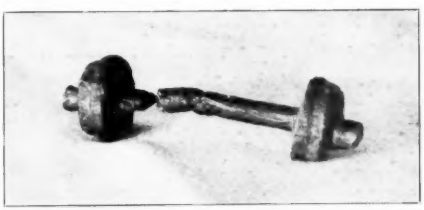





F W P
FAST FREIGHT COAL CAR



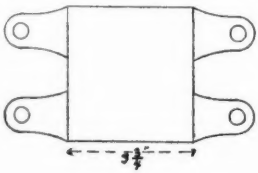


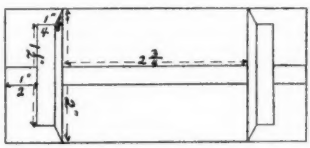


took two flasks and pounded molder's sand into one of the flasks, and set the wooden wheels half way in. Then we sprinkled dry sand on so that the molder's sand in the other flask wouldn't stick. Then we put the other flask on it and the pegs held it in place. We then took the two flasks apart and took the wooden model out. We made air holes in the flask on top with a hatpin and a larger hole to pour the melted lead in. We put the flasks together again and poured the lead in the hole. When cool we took the flasks apart and this is the way the lead wheels looked. The reason there are these holes in them is because there were not enough air holes in the flasks and the melted lead couldn't push the air out.

DOROTHY WING.

Everybody in the third grade last year made a drawing for the truck for our cars, and we at last decided upon this one. The truck is made of some metal. It fits on the bottom of the car and holds the wheels onto the car. We are going to screw our truck to the car so it can turn a little when going around curves. We did not plan to keep the side of the truck from hitting the wheels, and if it did the car could not move very easily, so we think we will put a washer between the truck and the wheels. The wheels are ⅜ inch below





the bottom of the car. We made them that way so the wheels will not hit the bottom of the car. We shall make the hole that we shall put the axle in larger than the axle, so it will have plenty of room to turn around.

LUCY SMITH.

If we were to use these cars we would send the stock car west to the cattle ranches to be filled with cattle and bring it back to the Stock Yards to unload. The refrigerator cars we would send to the Stock Yards, fill with fresh meat, and ship to the East where the people need it most. The coal car we could send right down in Illinois and fill with coal to help carry on the great manufacturing in the city. The furniture car we could fill with furniture made here and ship west where the people need it most. The box car we could take to Minnesota to fill with grain, or it might be used for any common freight. The caboose is used for the people who work on the train, and the men who look after the stock.

OWEN WHITE.

We went down to measure the kindergarten circle, and found it was 16 inches in diameter. We found there was room just outside of the circle for the track. It is to be made in sections so it can be stored away when not in use.

As we have done all we can on the cars, we have asked the big boys to help finish them, so the kindergarten children can use them very soon.

There were many problems in arithmetic not suggested in the children's reports, such as finding the capacity of real cars, and finding the number of board feet and the cost of the lumber used in making the cars.

AN IDEAL COURSE OF STUDY[1]

WILLIAM M. GIFFIN
Principal of the Frances Willard School, Chicago

An ideal course of study should be to the teacher what a menu card is to the hotel guest — that is, full of dainty and valuable suggestions — the one for the inner man, the other for the child-mind. The course of study, like the menu, should be prepared by experts from each department of the teaching force, rather than by mind-stuffers whose whole idea of education is to get over a certain amount of ground in a given time, con so many facts from a given page, and learn to read and spell so many words in a prescribed order. It should be prepared by those who can realize that one has hardly done his duty who has taught a child *how* to read, if at the same time he has not taught him *what* to read; or who can realize that, while a tadpole may appeal to one child in a given grade, another child in the same grade with quite a different environment may have a greater interest in cobble stones, or that a child with a certain environment should have instilled in him a love for birds, while another, who seldom sees a bird, is in much more need of having created within him a love for fresh air or soap and water; that is, one requires training from the humane side, while the other requires training from the hygienic side. How absurd for the hotel guest to think that, because the card is given him, he must begin at the top and fill all its conditions to the end!

We once heard of an honest old farmer who so felt, and who, when he had reached the first third of the card, called the head waiter and said: "Say, waiter, if it ain't agin the rules, I should like to skip from tha' to tha'." No doubt many a teacher has felt ofttimes, when inflicted with a class of left-overs who had at last reached her grade, that she would "like to skip from tha' to

[1] A paper read before the joint meeting of the Ella F. Young and George Howland Clubs, October 14, 1904.

tha'," and who would no doubt turn out much better citizens if she could but have the privilege of using her judgment in doing so. Nor can there be any doubt that there are many times when, if she did make a skip here and there, after due consultation with her principal, no one would receive any great injury either mentally or physically.

I have not forgotten that we were making conditions for this great, big, overgrown village, with its smoke and soot, its dust and mud, its fine boulevards and parks, and, finally, its population made up of people from every country of the globe who, many of them, change their residence every six months. On the other hand, I have not forgotten that we, when writing this course of study, did what every progressive man or woman has done who has had success in life — namely, worked toward an ideal. How can we best do this? Is it not possible to have printed in our course of study parallel columns which may be known as "must" and "may," or "necessary" and "optional," or, perhaps better yet, "minimum" and "maximum" requirements. For example, a child has no right to be in the fourth-year grade and not know that 6 4's are 24. In other words, by the end of the four years in school a child should know, before being advanced to a higher grade, his tables of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and partition; and when he comes to us from any part of the city, that is one of the things we have a right to insist upon his knowing before admitting him to the grade mentioned. On the other hand, he may never have seen anything in nature that has appealed to him, not even this grand lake of which we are so justly proud; while, should it be his good fortune to find himself in a school where he can see it each day, he will not be long in "catching on to" its beauties, and the lessons its waters and shores are teaching him. If he has come from some central building where they have not forgotten the importance of teaching him the hygienic side — that is, the use of soap and water — he will there have learned one valuable lesson, which will help him to meet his new environment; and that is one important point to keep in view in making a course of study for a city with such mixed conditions. But few, if any, of the children move from any such district as,

say, Hyde Park to a district near the center of the city, while there are many who from time to time move from the center to the suburbs. The work, then, of the central school should tend toward the possible change for better conditions which should or may meet these children. Teaching them the use of a fork and napkin, and of the words "excuse" and "pardon" and "if you please," is of much greater importance than the spelling of rhinoceros, Hoangho, or Yanktsekiang.

Again, there are schools where it is much more important for the pupils to gain the meaning of the Declaration of Independence than to learn the names of the battles of the Civil War or the divisions of the central European continent. A million dollars' worth of powder is burned up each year by people who do not know why they are burning it. I or my children did not have to be told why this powder is burned on the Fourth of July, nor did you in school. It is well, however, to give a few hints to the son of Salbanio, down in the river district, in order that he may have, not only more fun in burning his powder, but a better appreciation of what freedom and independence mean.

Here, then, is one of the many subjects that Miss A., in the central ward or district, should be glad to teach, while Miss B., in a suburban district, whose children have the proper home influence, knows there is no more reason why she should teach it than she should teach her children the use of the napkin at the table; for, as Dod Weaver would say: "They always knowed it." Let us remember, with Parker, that

> Knowledge is boundless, and your pupils can get but a drop of the ocean. What knowledge shall you present them in the years you have them under your care and guidance? What knowledge shall govern you in the selection? The answers are not far to seek. Your selection can be entirely governed by what each individual pupil needs for his personal development. He needs that knowledge which will enable him best to serve the school and the world. The two answers are one; the needs of the school and the needs of the world are the needs of the individual. A course of study is a means to an end. From this course of study the teacher selects the material immediately necessary for the advancement of personal, mental, and moral power.

As said before, let this course of study, then, be a suggestive one, prepared by experts from all departments of the corps of

instruction, so written as to enable the progressive teacher to choose that which shall best suit the particular class of children with which the teacher is dealing, that she may feel an individual responsibility in the selection of at least part of the work which she is to give them. This, of course, will be chosen from what we have termed the maximum requirements. To let the teacher have this privilege will best suit the children and the state, and will cause the teacher to feel that she is something more than an automaton, to be wound up and run down at the will of a committee which has made, set, and formed work for her to perform.

As to the program, I say: Hands off! In heaven's name, let me have a little individuality, and let me run my school as my conscience tells me I should! Then hold me responsible when I send you a child named for a certain grade, if you find him not up to the "must" or minimum standard, unless with his card I send you good reasons for his having been advanced to that grade, though not up to the minimum in all its requirements. I have heard of the schools of a certain city in France which were so well graded as to the course of study and arrangement of the program that the superintendent of schools could take out his watch, during any hour of the day, and tell just what page and what verse each child of the city at that moment was reading. Rather than to so much as *lean* in this direction, let us swing the pendulum to the other extreme, and have a go-as-you-please condition; and I vouch for it that the children will be better prepared to enter upon the duties of citizenship, when they have left the school to begin life's responsibilities, than they possibly can if educated under the former conditions.

BEVERLY HILLS

READING LESSON DERIVED FROM AN EXCURSION BY THE SECOND GRADE OF THE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ELSABETH PORT
Teacher

On Thursday, November 3, we went to Beverly Hills. At ten minutes of 9 we crossed the Midway and went on the street cars to Englewood. We had to wait until a quarter of 10 for the train. We were on the train about 15 minutes.

On the train Denison saw men making a new park.

Geraldine saw seven cows.

Elizabeth saw some pigeons walking around a pigeon-house.

Dent saw a flock of birds flying south.

Lanning saw a wagon of corn.

Denison saw some corn that had not been cut down.

Beatrice Lovett saw corn fields where the corn was stacked like tents.

Meredith and Miss Port saw a field of cabbages.

Lanning saw a man plowing.

Paul saw many pumpkins in a store.

Mary saw some ducks.

When we got off the train the air was clear and fresh and breezy. It seemed like the country. We walked and ran and screamed. We saw a pond of water and a burro. We wanted to find snakes and frogs in the pond. But we had to go on.

Miss Port said that it was too far to go to the farm. We were disappointed, but we had just as good a time in the woods.

The woods were beautiful and quiet, and there was not a house near by. There were oak trees, and the leaves were brown and yellow. We found some red leaves. The oak leaves rustled in the trees. Many came floating and whirling down. Some fluttered down. The ground was covered with dry, brown leaves.

We had a leaf fight. Then we covered Mrs. Thomsen with leaves. We said, "Where is Mrs. Thomsen?" and up she jumped. Then we covered Miss Port. Some children climbed trees and shook the leaves down.

After a while we took a walk. We found another pond. We think it was an old mill dam. We ran down the old logs. We played a long time. Then we wanted a drink. Six of us went to a farm for water. Before we got any

water the woman told us to be careful in the pasture. We said, "Why?" She said that there was a wild bull in the pasture. We ran for the woods again.

We ate our lunch in the woods. We wanted water all the time. Next time we are going to take bottles of water with us. While we were eating our lunch some bees came to see us. One bee stung Gordon on the finger.

After lunch we played games and told stories. We saw a man with a gun. We told him about the wild bull, and he said he would have to shoot him. But we think he was just fooling.

At 2 o'clock we started for home. We had a good time.

SIGNS OF FALL

October 11. The leaves are falling.
October 12. The elms are nearly bare.
October 13. The elm leaves are yellow.
October 14. Burrs are turning brown.
October 17. Willow leaves are yellow.
October 18. Some grass is brown.
October 19. The poplar leaves are dry and brown.
October 20. Oak leaves are turning red or brown.
October 21. The weeds are all yellow or brown.
October 24. Most of the birds have gone away.

NOTES ON THE LESSON

This reading lesson for the second grade was written after one of the children's excursions. They had had an almost perfect day and were more than glad to "make a story about it." They were told that the story was to be printed, and that they could learn to read it from the printed slips. They were full of plans for "surprising mother" or reading it in the morning exercise time.

Each of the two groups made its own version. The sentences were dictated to the teacher and written on the board. Much discussion arose as to the best words to use. For instance, when, in describing the air, they decided on "fresh and clear," one little girl said: "And won't you please say 'breezy,' because I just love the way that sounds — *breezy!*" They labored long over the way the leaves fell, some insisting that they fluttered, while others were as sure that they floated, down. We finally had to put in both ways to satisfy everyone.

When the stories were finally all written on the board, they were copied and read next day to the two groups together. They

then decided for themselves which parts of each to use and which were unnecessary.

Since the children have had the printed slips, they have been trying to read them. It is rather hard work, as there is not a great deal of repetition, and some of the words are somewhat long to study phonetically. Many have to be told them repeatedly. However, they remember pretty well what they dictated, and their great interest in taking the slips home, when they can read them, holds them to the work.

The verses were made for the Thanksgiving exercise. The second grade was to have autumn pictures for their part of the program, and made these original ones to add to their others:

We went to Beverly Hills
  And saw the red leaves fall;
We covered each other with leaves,
  And climbed the trees so tall.

The air was fresh and cool.
  There was no house near by.
There were so many trees
  We scarcely saw the sky.

The "Signs of Fall" are simply the printed form of the calendar kept by the children during October. Each day some child told us one thing that showed the time of year. At first they had difficulty in keeping to the things peculiar to autumn and wanted to write such sentences as, "It is a cool day," or "The sky is cloudy." In a short time, however, they were able to criticise each other's observations and choose the proper ones for their purpose.

THE LIBRARY AS AN EDUCATIONAL FACTOR[1]

M. E. AHERN
Chicago

I deem it a high honor, little deserved, to be given a place on this program. I say "little deserved" advisedly, for I am, I may confide to you, taking the place at the last moment of a more worthy representative; and in addition I feel regret that, though I was a teacher for many years and planned and attended many teachers' meetings, in all that time I never spoke, nor heard any other teacher speak, of the place of the library in the scheme of education. In the files of my educational journals gathered in my teaching years I found no plan proposed, nor approval of any plan proposed, by another to bring to the help of the work in hand the mighty forces for aid that lie in every collection of good books. We did not know, and we did not know that we did not know, that libraries are potent factors in education. But today teachers are awakening to that fact, and all around us we see evidences of a new effort and a realization of Dr. Thurber's words:

> It is now pedagogic high treason, indeed, to act as if textbooks contained the whole canon of knowledge, and for the teacher to explain everything in advance, and then to expect of the class only to say back what has just been said to them, is to reduce teaching to the lowest depths of imbecility.

One of the chief watchwords today is *correlation,* which is generally understood to mean the adjusting of studies in such a manner that one may help out the other. One of the prominent ideas in educational effort today also is that the responsibility for the training of the future citizen, man or woman, does not rest on the school alone. It is only one of a number that have to do with that problem. Among the influences which aid the development of the child's character are his associates, his home, the church, books, and the school. Is it not an important problem that each shall do

[1] Paper read at the Departmental Conferences, Emmons Blaine Hall, School of Education, Saturday, May 14, 1904.

its own part and do it well? To do this it is necessary to know the full scope of the responsibility — to understand the aids and hindrances, the aims and objects, of the individual influences. To correlate these influences, as far as possible, that one may help out the other in making the child's life a unit, is a considerably higher problem, to my mind, than to determine whether history should precede geography, or geography history, or whether they may not be taught better together than separately. It may seem that the problem is a hard one, but how or where better can it be approached than in a conference of any or all of those concerned in it, or in any part of it? To aid the child in choosing his associates is largely, if not entirely, outside the power of the school; the home and the church are jealous of their rights; but books and their choice belong to the child's mental life, and not only may, but of necessity must, be looked after intelligently by the power that has the general supervision of his mental growth; and this leads to the consideration of the library and its place in any scheme of education.

In considering the library as a factor in education, we look at it here in a threefold view: the library in the school as a necessary piece of its equipment, its place in the normal school, and the public library for all, in school and out.

1. First, as to the school library. This, in its make-up, should be not alone a collection of books, but in every sense a selection of books. Every volume in it should be chosen with a distinct and definite purpose in view. Two classes of use will be provided for — collateral and supplementary reading. The first may be used to further the acquisition of useful knowledge; the latter, to cultivate the habit of reading; to cultivate a taste for that literature which will enrich, refine, and beautify life. It will be made up of what may be called here books of knowledge and books of power. There shall be in this library textbooks — the best of their kind, well written by those who are competent to speak, well illustrated by one or several hands whose artistic skill is undisputed, continually revised, and kept abreast of the advance of knowledge. Further, there shall be reference books, books of facts, handbooks, dictionaries, cyclopedias, and the like. The

school library will have place for pictures, for maps, for lantern slides, for various kinds of illustrative material, with well-directed references where in other libraries and museums these may be supplemented and followed up. This material, too, will need to be selected, not merely collected. As the various subjects are presented, there will be different versions of the same material, expanded, illuminated, related. The child will thus be taught to look into the various authorities at hand, and to know where or when to look further, to think and to weigh for himself; he will be given an incentive to read seriously and with a purpose, and he will from the first learn to turn to books as a delight, not as a task. All this for the collateral reading.

In the supplementary reading will be books of travel, of biography, of discovery, of invention, of description of men and places, of people and powers; books of comparison and measure. When the child is familiar with all these, he will read between the lines of his textbook of a hundred interesting things of which the author has not written one word. The use of these books and material will enrich and enlarge the school course with the glow of romance and the warm touch of life. The choice and use of books by children up to fourteen years of age, when the faculties of reason and analysis are supposed to begin to assert themselves, should come under the province of the school, either directly or in co-operation with the special department for children in the public library. To it the pupil should be accountable for what he reads and how he reads it. From it he should get the advice, the inspiration, the foundation of taste, which will make him a wise and careful reader and prepare him for the freedom of the public library. Under right conditions, he will have developed a knowledge of the simpler tools — indexes, catalogues, etc. — and will have absorbed such a general knowledge of the use of books that the awakened powers of analysis will find ready a fund of book-knowledge that will feed them till they grow self-sustaining. He will know where to find the books he needs for pleasure or profit, and will have become acquainted with the sources of book-distribution provided in the community.

Beyond and more important than the assistance which reading

gives to the work of the school is the formation here of the reading habit. If the child leaves school acquainted with a number of good books and a love for good books, he has a precious possession worth more to him than any study in the curriculum; something that will not only help him in his daily work, but will throw a safeguard about his leisure. The province of the school is to teach a variety of definite things, but its aim, its end, is the development of character. It has been urged that the public school should fit its pupils to earn a living. This demand ignores real education. The aim should be character, not livelihood. It should fit its pupils to live a life, not merely earn a living. A well-lived life always earns a living. The school should teach handicraft to develop the intelligent and moral use of the hand; teach science to place the truth in its proper relation; teach history and geography, not to make commercial travelers, but all these things to enable the pupil to look out over the whole world and see it crowned with life and beauty.

2. And this brings us to the library in the normal school, which may almost be termed, in all truth, the root of the whole matter. It will readily be seen that, to carry out the plans and purposes of the school library to which we have referred, the public-school teacher must understand its plan and appreciate its value. The normal-school library will contain all that the school library should contain, and more. It contains the books that have been written about education, the statistics necessary to comparison, the bibliographies of a multitude of subjects, the reports of the government of the various educational organizations of the leading educational institutions, and all such material as is needed to illustrate the work of the various departments, much of which may seem at first thought to be outside of the scope of a library. In addition, it will have such close relation with museums, and other sources of like character, that it has easy access to what is not expedient to have at hand. No normal school is fully equipped that does not contain a model children's library, chosen and classified with the greatest thought and care, and with which the students must become intelligently familiar before they can in any true sense be authorized to teach.

To normal schools more than to any other agency belongs the duty of teaching the power of the book to those who are going out to teach. The teacher is expected to know how to judge of textbooks, their value and the part they play at certain periods of progress, as well as their place in the study of the subjects they contain. Of equal importance, though unfortunately not so often emphasized, is the knowledge of certain books and their place in the development of character. Horace Mann said: "If a boy read of the friendship of Damon and Pythias, the integrity of Aristides, the perseverance of Franklin, the purity of Washington, he will think differently all the remaining days of his life." That he may be able to make good use of such books as these and others, a teacher should have read and made a part of himself, have read and enjoyed before becoming a teacher, the best of the books that are pronounced children's classics. Only recently I was told of a senior student in a famous school for teachers who asked in the library for Grimm's tales. Is there not a deficiency there that will be a tremendous handicap in understanding the proper food for a child's imagination? Is such a one ready to teach? Then, the wonderfully good books *about* children, but for older people, from which, through the minds of men and women of genius, a better insight into childhood can be gained directly by an ordinary mind. What a tremendous insight one receives through the eyes and mind of Emmy Lou! Those who are to become teachers should have instruction, definite and reliable, as to what books are in the world, how to use them, where they may be obtained, where they are collected, and how they are distributed. This is the information that will be invaluable to them as teachers, as citizens, and as intelligent beings. They should be able to class books in their proper place, whether as tools or as friends. It is necessary to those who essay to use them to know the best tools among books, just as it is in any other calling, and no one will dispute the fact that as intelligent care should be exercised in choosing friends among books as among people.

The normal school training the teacher to go out to teach is the most economical place to have this instruction given. Having the training schools in connection with them, the adaptation of

the books and work to the children can be tested and adjusted at the least cost in time and effort.

3. To come to the third and last view, that of the public library, we may turn to all that is expected of the school library, and of the normal-school library and say: All this it is, and more; with a broader, deeper, and perhaps higher extension, bringing in all humanity, forming indeed in its best examples what Carlyle calls the people's university. In its principle of collecting and distributing information it reaches out to every grade and class of society. It offers to every man, woman, and child in the community, without regard to age, sex, class, religion, or politics, the means of universal self-culture. The voluntary side of the work of the public library gives the individual freedom of action in forming his ideas and standards, and thus does a larger work in a way than a school library. The well-equipped public library has its special librarians — well-educated, broad-minded, sympathetic men and women in touch with every vital force in the community, ready to guide, assist, and teach the children in their own specially equipped department, and to be of service to the student, the specialist, the learned and the untaught, the wise and the foolish, and who, actuated by that indefinable something called the library spirit, are indeed potent factors in the scheme of education. In many cities, if not indeed in most places, there is the closest sympathy between schools of all grades and classes, and every organized educational movement, and the public library.

The school libraries are, in fact, branches of the public library in many places, and the plan is being still more widely adopted all the time. It is believed by many that this plan is a wise one, because, as is set out by Mr. Dana, of Newark, N. J. — an eminent authority on schools and libraries:

> With the changes which are occurring in teachers, in methods of teaching, in methods and subjects of study, it is often well to change frequently the books in each room, in part or in whole. This can be done by the public library, if it owns the books. The library also can better look after repairs, binding, selection, purchase, methods of lending, etc., than can any individual teacher, or can any portion of the school machinery. In fact, the ideal condition seems to be that in which the public library, under the general sanction

and supervision of the superintendent, and with constant consultation with individual teachers, extends its system of lending to every schoolroom in the city, making that system as flexible as conditions demand. In sections of the city remote from the main library it includes suitable books for children to take home for their parents as well as for themselves. The public library is the extension of the school system, at public expense, to those who, by reason of age and poverty or stress of whatever kind, may not avail themselves of the school at an earlier period.

Every student within the walls of the library being there voluntarily, no matter what the subject of his research, is adding to the intellectual wealth of the community. Even expensive works of reference consulted by only a few, but these in earnest, are justifiable, because the result of the study, when expressed in products, is the property of the community at large. Preachers, teachers, scientists, mechanics, sociologists, students, every interest of the community represented by a page of print, find a source of helpfulness in this extension and exponent of the school system.

I cannot close this hasty plea for a plan for the library and a wider use of its material so well as by quoting from the eminent English writer, H. G. Wells, who in an article in the *Fortnightly* last year, on "Mankind in the Making," has this to say:

> The question of book distribution is as vitally important to the intellectual health of a modern people as are open windows. No nation can live under modern conditions unless its whole population is mentally aërated with books. . . . . There was a time when education was conceived of as a matter of learning. Our work now is to broaden both the conception of research and of teaching to recognize that whatever imports fresh and valid aspects, not simply of chemical and physical matters, but of æsthetic, social, and political matters, partakes of the honor and claims of research, and that whatever conveys ideas and aspects socially and clearly and invigoratingly, not simply by words of mouth, but by book or picture or article, is teaching. The whole business of bringing the contemporary book most efficiently home to the general reader, the business of contemporary criticism, the encouragement and support of contemporary writers, is just as vitally important in the modern state as the organization of colleges and schools, and just as little to be left to the enterprise of isolated individuals working primarily upon commercial lines of gain.

THE TEACHING OF A LANGUAGE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

LORLEY A. ASHLEMAN
The University of Chicago School of Education

Experience has shown that there is nothing which should be more carefully considered by the language-teacher than the child's great love for dramatic representation. His innate need to act, to move, if rightly met, is one of the beautiful provisions of nature always at the teacher's disposal, to be used as a means for the successful teaching of a language. "C'est la nature," says Pestalozzi, "qui nous donne notre premier langage. Ne pourrait-elle pas nous en donner dix autres de la même manière?" And we must bear in mind that action counteracts to a certain extent the feeling of constraint not wholly avoidable in the teaching of a language. In language work, especially, the child cannot learn by simply hearing and repeating. The ear alone cannot give him the "feel" of a word. He must comprehend the thought through as many natural channels as possible, and make it part of himself by actively expressing it in more ways than one.

To put the breath of life into the dry bones of grammatical exercises, and into the construction and memorizing of sentences — for we assimilate a language sentence by sentence, not word by word — is the great problem confronting the language-teacher. Forms must be learned — there is no avoiding that; and the form cannot be learned without the learner's thinking in the language itself. Thinking is conditioned upon the representation of something in the mind. In learning through games the child is dealing with real facts, for he is actually living them; he is representing something, consequently thinking something, and the forms in which he thinks will remain his permanent possession. The teacher need never fear that she will not secure repetition enough of sentences to guarantee their accurate pronunciation. Children love to repeat a game or play over and over again. Indeed, the

teacher soon finds that she is not drilling, but being drilled, in forms, so tenacious is the memory of children, so universal their demand that a thing said in a certain way once be said in that way ever after.

A teacher recently was rather surprised, when playing with her children after the Christmas holidays, to have them correct her on a certain point. Having forgotten the exact words she had used, she had slightly changed them. She explained that in French there were two or three ways of expressing about the same meaning. The children seemed incredulous. "Well," she said, "do you always say, 'How do you do?' when you meet one of your mamma's friends?" B thought he did. D said: "I don't! I just say, 'Good morning!'" C added: "My mother says, 'How are you?'" The ball was rolling; they were noting resemblances and differences; we were touching on the true value of words, and accurate and inaccurate usage.

In the repeated games the foreign language becomes a reality to the child; a "language," not a slow translation; for there is nothing in the nature of translation connected with the process. The association of the foreign phrase is not with an English form, but with the actual fact or mental conception. This is important, for as Gouin so clearly put it:

> In a language there is hardly a single word which has its exact equivalent in another language, any more than one blade of corn has its exact counterparts in all the corn-fields of the world. . . . . Each tongue reckons more than a hundred thousand locutions absolutely untranslatable term for term in no matter what other tongue; these phrases, said or reputed to be translatable, are only so in approximation or by exception.

But though these forms, this framework of the language, must be learned by all, and in the same way by all, there uniformity ends. A child's success in a game depends upon his self-exertion; his individuality has free play. The teacher finds that games and plays arranged to come out in a certain way develop quite otherwise when the children bring their own interpretations to bear. Again, the unconsciousness of the normal child is a factor of immense importance. So absorbed can a child become in a game that he is entirely unconscious of carrying it out in a language other than his own.

The pleasure that the child finds in vocal experimentation greatly facilitates the process of associating meaning with sounds. He imitates before he is aware that the sounds convey meanings. When, through facial expression, gesture, or action, he discovers the meaning, he is still more desirous to produce the sounds. The kindergarten children singing and playing "Sur le pont d'Avignon" are attracted by the melody, the action, and the new sounds. The strange tones, with their fascinating newness, they unhesitatingly reproduce.

The children of the first and second grades were much interested in dramatically singing the round, "Il était une bergère." The words of the round are simple, and therefore especially adapted to children. The material and the action are so varied that they more or less directly affect the individual child. The game is played in this way:

A large circle is formed. "Attention!" says the leader. "Voyons, Marie, vous êtes la bergère. Jean, cherchez un bâton. Donnez-le à la bergère."

Jean: "Voici, Marie."

Marie: "Je vous remercie."

Jean: "Du tout."

The leader continues: "Harold, vous êtes le papa mouton; Catherine, vous êtes la maman mouton; et Fréderic, le bébé mouton." Only a complete family will satisfy children, and the baby is one of the important features. Part of the circle is marked off as the hillside.

Leader: "Donald, vous êtes le chien de la bergerie, gardez bien les moutons."

The sheep watched over by the shepherdess and her dog, begin to graze peacefully on the hillside. A gymnasium bench at the other end of the circle represents the kitchen of the shepherdess, a large dumb-bell her churn.

Leader: "Margaret, vout êtes le petit chat."

The circle skips gaily and sings the little song with its refrain imitating the purring of a cat:

"Il était une bergère,
Et ron, ron, ron, petit patapon;
Il était une bergère,
Qui gardait ses moutons,
Ron, ron,
Qui gardait ses moutons."

The sheep, having now eaten enough, lie down and go to sleep, and the dog keeps watch. The *bergère* enters her kitchen and proceeds to make the

cheese. The little *chaton* slyly slips up and tries to approach the churn. The circle skips the other way and sings:

"Elle fit un fromage,
Et ron, ron, ron, petit patapon;
Elle fit un fromage
Du lait de ses moutons,
Ron, ron,
Du lait de ses moutons.

"Son chaton la regarde,
Et ron, ron, ron, petit patapon;
Son chaton la regarde
Avec un air glouton,
Ron, ron,
Avec un air glouton."

The circle now stands still and sings with *la bergère:*

"Si tu y mets la patte,
Et ron, ron, ron, petit patapon;
Si tu y met la patte
Tu auras du bâton,
Ron, ron,
Tu auras du bâton."

The litle cat, very much frightened at the sight of the stick, quickly gets out of the way, to the great delight of the circle.

The playing of the toy animal store was much enjoyed by the children of the first grade. The animals chosen for the store were remembered from the preceding games and rounds: *le chat, le chien, la souris,* and *le mouton. Le cheval* and *le lapin* were next chosen; then came *la vache, le lion,* and *l'éléphant.* One child was storekeeper. A large chair was his desk, a kindergarten chair his stool, a pencil the key with which he wound up his animals, and a drinking-cup the oil can.

Le marchand: "A, vous êtes le coq."

A took a kindergarten chair, placed it against the wall, sat down, and became a toy animal.

Le marchand: "B, vous êtes le mouton," etc.

As soon as there were animals enough in the shop, the marchand went to his desk and was busily making out his accounts, when a customer entered the store. (These little details mean a great deal to the children, as is made evident by the earnestness with which they act them out.)

Le marchand: "Bon jour, Madame."

Le client: "Bon jour, Monsieur."

Le marchand: "Que désirez-vous, Madame?"

Le client: "Avez-vous des animaux?"

Le marchand: "Que, Madame, j'ai un chat, une souris," and he proceeds to show her his stock.

Le client: "Montrez-moi le coq."

Le marchand: "Très bien!" He takes down the *coq,* winds him up, pours a little oil in his joints, and off hops the toy rooster, crowing at the top of his voice. Suddenly he runs down.

Le client: "C'est très bien! montrez-moi le lion." The lion is taken down, wound up, and off he goes with a terrible roar.

Le client: "C'est bien. Voulez-vous me donner le coq?"

Le marchand: "Oui, Madame, si vous pouvez l'enlever pendant que je compte un, deux, trois."

The marchand counts *un, deux, trois;* if, when he is through counting, the buyer has lifted the *coq* from the floor, it is his, and after saying, "Au revoir, monsieur," he takes his purchase home, and another customer comes in.

In these little games the child assimilates the subjective as well as the objective language. The little words, *bien, très bien,* which the teacher and the pupil interpose simply and naturally, belong to an important category of expressions which forms a language of itself. Guoin says that he has collected more than sixty thousand of these expressions. Besides, in the friendly greeting, "Bon jour, monsieur," "Je vous remercie," "Il n'y a pas de quoi," he has developed the sentiment of politeness and consideration for others; the intellect and the heart have gone hand in hand.

Another animal game gave the children the greatest satisfaction. This was partly due to the fact that a number of the expressions had become almost instinctive to the children.

MADAME LA POULE, MONSIEUR LE COQ ET MONSIEUR MINET

The game called for a barn. The children, seated on kindergarten chairs, formed the four walls of the barn. The chairs were placed closely together, so that neither cold nor wind might harm the *vache,* the *cheval,* and, above all, *madame la Poule,* whose duty it was to keep the eggs warm. A large waste-paper basket made a nest, some white drinking-cups the eggs.

Le directeur du jeu: "A, vous êtes madame la Poule." (*Madame la Poule* crouches down behind the large basket and covers the eggs with her hands.) "B, vous êtes le coq." (The *coq* flies up on a beam of the barn [a chair], and appears much interested in *madame la Poule's* nest.) "C, vous êtes monsieur Minet." (*Monsieur Minet* goes into the garden and basks sleepily in the sun-

shine.) *Madame la Poule* cackles; *monsieur le Coq* hops down from his post, struts into the garden, flies up on the highest post of the fence (a chair), and joyously announces to the world: "La poule a un œuf, cock-a-doodle-doo, la poule a un œuf." The announcement greatly interests *monsieur Minet,* who stretches himself with a "Meow," and then creeps into the barn, followed by *monsieur le Coq,* who does not intend that any harm shall befall *madame la Poule.*

Monsieur Minet: "Bon jour, madame la Poule."

Madame la Poule: "Bon jour, monsieur Minet."

Monsieur Minet: "Avez-vous un œuf?"

Madame la Poule: "Oui, Monsieur, j'ai trois œufs."

Monsieur Minet: "J'ai faim, voulez-vous me donner un œuf?"

Madame la Poule: "Non, Monsieur."

Monsieur Minet: "Eh bien, Madame, j'ai des griffes." And with that he tries to get into the nest; but madame la Poule is ready for him.

Madame la Poule: "J'ai un bec." And she flies at him so quickly that monsieur Minet, in great fright, makes for the garden, to the great delight of monsieur le Coq, who greets him with a joyous "Cock-a-doodle-doo!"

Some first-grade children had just finished playing the game one day, and, as the bell was expected to ring at any moment, the teacher thought it unwise to begin another game. So, sitting down in the barnyard, she turned to a boy and said: "Avez-vous un minet?" "Non, Madamoiselle," was the quick reply; then, holding up his two fingers: "J'ai deux chiens." The children were so interested telling about their different animals that they were disappointed when the gong sounded.

The French sounds did not daze them; they were comprehended. The answers proved that they were assimilated; they were naturally combining and recombining their impressions.

It would seem that the dramatizing of such subjects of interest in the social life of the school as lend themselves to this form of expression was undoubtedly the truest and the broadest means of arousing the child's interest in another language. Moreover, it gives him the colloquial idiomatic French of which Professor Cutting, of the University of Chicago, has so clearly shown the value.

Not in the more dignified form of literature, but in the language of the fireside, of the market, and of the social gathering, is revealed the idiomatic twist of the national thought. Pervading but a small fraction of the whole vocabulary, this national bias is at once the most significant and the most difficult feature encountered by the language-learner.

Idioms are not a matter of reasoning; they should be acquired at an age when things impress themselves naturally and deeply, when the mind accepts with but little questioning and picks up sentences as a whole.

In thinking in French, the child naturally tends to think about the things that the French people themselves think and talk about. Interests tend to become identical. National prejudice melts away. Plays based upon French festivals, on events prominent in French history, or on things characteristic of the life and feeling of the people, ideas and events that make up the very spirit and mental background of a young Frenchman, the finer breath and poetry of his youth, will certainly appeal to the enthusiastic nature of a young American. Therefore history needs to be freely drawn upon — the rich, picturesque kind of history that involves the study of manners, costumes, appropriate settings, and national music.

Thus the language that the child has unconsciously learned in his playtime he will possess and retain when a man as a priceless tool for his work. Moreover, he will always retain the historical impression, the manner, the setting, the spirit of the dramatic events in which for a time, with the single-mindedness of youth, he has felt himself really an actor. Best of all, having lived for a time in a community other than his own, he will have a sympathetic interest which makes the narrowness of provincialism impossible, and enables him to comprehend more truly his fellowmen.

WHAT IS ACCURACY IN ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC?

G. W. MYERS
The University of Chicago School of Education

In a recent, widely circulated article, under the title "Arithmetic for Children under Twelve," we were told the old, old story — so old, forsooth, as to appear new again to its writer — viz.: "The chief value of number work lies in its contribution to the habit of accuracy, and children are not and cannot be accurate in the earlier stages of their development, as test investigations show." A little farther along in the same article we are informed: "Number work for this period should consist of . . . . (*b*) exercises in computation to form the habit of accuracy."

A different writer in another journal gives us a glimpse of personal administrative practice. He writes:

> For some years I have been accustomed to insist that the arithmetic work which calls for children in the lower grades to pursue steps of reasoning was positively wrong. Very little of it is done in K——— schools. We use all diligence to make our children quick and accurate in fundamental conceptions as pure memory work.

The writer obtained his elementary maltreatment in arithmetic from twenty-five to thirty-five years ago, in the schools of the same state in which the gentleman who penned the last quotation is administering his notions of elementary education in arithmetic, and under teachers who held this same conception of the educational function of arithmetic. It is truly amazing how an error, that is easily grasped and administered, does persist in propagating itself! Obviously, there are still pupils in this state who, like the writer, will have to unlearn most of that on which they spent time in school, and slowly awaken to a consciousness, after they have left school, that, as regards the arithmetic, their time in school was worse than lost. But if teachers learn with difficulty their true functions and duties, administrative officers seem to

learn with difficulties doubled and twisted, what is their duty touching the arithmetic.

In a widely used arithmetic of recent date, whose chief distinction lies in the twofold merit of exhibiting (1) how fully elementary arithmetic may be formalized and mechanized, and (2) how necessary it is to prop up such a treatment with braces in the form of pedagogical notes to the teacher to excuse the author for much of his folly, we read the hysterical admonition: "A bank clerk who makes one error a day in carrying out his balances, which he does not himself discover and detect, would not retain his position." Again: "Remember that any inaccuracy in solving business problems makes the work valueless." Thus, after carefully and successfully blindfolding the pupil to the thought-value of arithmetic, the author takes off the blindfold at the foot of each page and flaunts the scarecrow of accuracy before the child.

The tenor of these quotations is in one form or another, the dominant note nowadays of discussions on arithmetic in the schools. Administrative officers seem to have a peculiar fondness for this view. Ask the teacher of any non-mathematical subject what ought to be attempted in early arithmetic, and you are usually met with the prompt reply that speed and accuracy are the things. Furthermore, many old-line teachers, most young and inexperienced teachers, and amateur students of elementary education generally, dismiss the arithmetic problem in the early grades with the same off-hand solution. Perhaps some attention to the matter will be pardoned here.

It is well to note that general acceptance of a view is not infallible proof of its soundness. In many cases it indicates almost nothing at all. The school public inherits tendencies, dons prevailing fashions, and contracts contagions as certainly and as easily as do our physical organisms. Before acknowledging obeisance to a prevailing idea, it is the part of wisdom to examine it. We cannot with justice be confronted with that dreaded charge of disrespect for tradition until we refuse to accept a well-grounded one. Let us then inquire a little into the nature of this thing which we call "accuracy" in arithmetic work.

First of all, accuracy in arithmetic is a mental, and neither a manual nor a mnemonic attribute. An element of thinking is a *sine qua non* of accuracy. Without thinking it is not only impossible "to contribute to the habit of accuracy," but it is impossible also even to generate the notion of accuracy. Pure memory work can no more beget even the idea — to say nothing of the habit — of accuracy than can health beget the conception of sickness. "He remembers inaccurately" is a contradiction, and "he remembers accurately" is tautology. He either remembers or he does not. There are no gradations of remembering as there are of temperature. This is especially true of formal number facts. Pure memory work does not touch accuracy at any point. It is absurd to talk of making "children accurate in fundamental operations as pure memory work." The sufficient reason that diligence spent in attempts to make children accurate in pure memory work is wasted is that the impossible is attempted.

In the next place, accuracy involves an external as well as an internal element. There must be a comparing and a judging between two factors before we can assert accuracy of any sort of work. In short, accuracy is predicable only after a comparison, and is itself a judgment. In arithmetic the two explicit or implicit factors are an idea and an effort to express it. If either of the factors is lacking, the very notion of accuracy falls to the ground.

Moreover, it is important to note that unless there be degrees of closeness, or adequacy, of expression of thought, accuracy has no meaning at all. Accuracy, in the only legitimate sense in arithmetic, means the degree of closeness of expression to idea — the adequacy of assertion to thought. Much of arithmetic is a language, an agency for expressing quantitative thought. The rest of it, and of course much the major part of it, is the thinking itself. If the pupil's expression is adequate to his number-concept in any given situation, the same mental satisfaction is felt by him in handling it as is felt by the most experienced adult who has struggled successfully to give adequate utterance to his more precise notions. The same wholesome issue in character, the same educative effect, results in one case as in the other. The idea that

accuracy in number work means the degree of closeness of approach of expression to absolute correctness is useless, unattainable, and has not even the saving virtue of being correct. The most accurate users of language can do nothing more than express adequately their conception of the truth. When, therefore, we have to do with the formal aspects of arithmetic, the language side of it, we are attempting to draw aim on an invisible, and intangible, object if we insist that accuracy shall mean adequacy of expression to absolute truth. The constant effort to express one's ideas with precision, however, pushes the ideal continually nearer and nearer to the absolutely true. In other words, the use of precise language eventuates in the accurate *thinker*. The teacher can influence more accurate *thinking* only by seeing to it that the pupil "say just what he thinks." This attempt to express one's idea with perfect fulness is the paramount problem for the school. It is no more than the youngest pupil can do, and no less than he should be continually exercised in doing. The core-problem, be it remembered, is not a matter of symbols and technique so much as it is a problem of the defining of ideas.

The current conception that accuracy in number work is synonymous with a sort of target-practice precision grows naturally out of the thought that school work in arithmetic consists in fixing in memory the facts of the tables. The sums and products are remembered, or forgotten, and the tendency has solidified into a custom of looking upon that student as accurate who has only a retentive verbal memory. Test studies show pretty conclusively that the verbal memory is capable of, perhaps, the least development of all of the mental faculties. As a matter of fact, in arithmetic, the only sort of memory that needs looking after at all — and it should be looked after most diligently — is the rational memory. The two kinds of memory are rarely strong in the same person. The rational memory has little difficulty in holding a fact after it has been brought into relation with kindred truth. The strong rational memory implies the possibility of setting up relationships at numerous points with ideas already in the mind. The fuller the mind, the greater is the task of organizing the new element of knowledge into right relationships with

what is already known. The thoughtful student is the slow student, because his task of assimilating the new idea is relatively great. It is this fact that puts truth into the admonition: "Pick your future student of mathematics from the slow arithmetic pupils." For from start to finish the would-be mathematician is he who has not only knowledge, but has "the knowledge that *knows that it knows.*"

The true conception of accuracy is secured by both teacher and pupil through measuring and the use of measurements in arithmetic work. The question naturally arises very soon: With what degree of accuracy should the measurements be made? This question must be answered by the teacher from two points of view, and by the pupil from only one. The teacher will ascertain, first, what is the smallest unit of which the pupil has, or can readily form, an adequate working conception. It is useless for the learner to attempt to work with a smaller unit than he can image. This sets the natural limit from the educational point of view.

In the next place, both teacher and pupil must study the question of the limit of refinement to be sought, from the view-point of the nature of the problem. If the problem is to find the number of plants needed for his flower-bed, it would be senseless to carry results to fractions. If he wants to cut a member for the frame of his playhouse, an eighth or a sixteenth of an inch becomes a serious matter, and must be attended to. Just here, we are reminded by some timid teacher, consists the difficulty in such work. No hard and fast rules can be set, and those of us who have not yet risen above rule and rote work grow quixotic at the imagined difficulty. How our arithmetic would thrill with life, if we could but see that the fine quality of training in arithmetical judgment, under purpose, which such questions furnish the pupil contains the very essence of educational merit! In the consideration of just these questions consists the difference between thought-work and mere words and symbols. Admitting such questions into the arithmetic class goes far toward generating, fostering, and strengthening the pupil's confidence in the truth that arithmetic is only organized common-sense. His number experiences thus become continuous with his life out of school.

We may now summarize the points of this paper as follows:

Accuracy in school work in arithmetic should mean the *degree of adequacy of expression to idea.*

The criterion for the measure of accuracy to be striven for is twofold: first, the ability of the pupil to form a *working image of the smallest (or largest) unit* employed in the problem; second, the *nature of the problem* itself.

Finally, neither the conception, nor habit, of accuracy can be generated in the pupil by formal memory work alone; but with the correct conception of accuracy the young pupil of arithmetic can be just as accurate and just as truly accurate as the most experienced adult.

THE EXTENSION OF THE VACATION SCHOOL IDEA

MRS. CAROLINE M. HILL
Chicago

The idea of vacation schools for the children of the poor is now accepted by everyone, and the demand for them far exceeds the supply. Schoolhouses would be kept open for them all summer if teachers, funds, and suitable places for excursions could be found. There are, moreover, many parents in moderate circumstances who are unable to spend much time in the country, and who would be glad to send their children to vacation schools if there were enough to accommodate them. Few persons will deny that there should be some way of increasing the number of vacation schools in the city and of getting more of the country into them, but there are some who go so far as to say that they should be in the country, and that any vacation school in the city is at best a poor makeshift.

There is almost as much need for vacation schools for the children of the well-to-do as for the poor, but the reasons for the need are somewhat different. Parents who can afford it are spending more and more time in the country, often taking their children out of school by the first of May, because the rest of the time can be more profitably spent in other ways. Exact information as to how these children spend their time cannot be obtained, but it is doubtful whether, on the whole, their energy is any better directed than that of the children of the poor during the vacation period. We consider "organized play" very important for the child who has only a school-yard or a small public playground to use, but it is just as important for the child who has all out of doors. The incongruity of a crowded day for nine months of the year and purposeless activity for the other three is beginning to be generally felt. Many parents make great efforts and spend large sums of money to place their boys in vacation camps under the care of responsible tutors. Some try to find

places on farms where they may co-operate to some extent in the industries of rural life. The feeling that the latter is a very desirable occupation for both boys and girls in the summer time is so general that it is scarcely necessary to explain or defend it. It would be the most simple solution of the problem to place city children in country families to whom they are related or with whom they are connected in some natural way, if farm homes could be found that were of equal cultivation and intelligence with their own, and if the farming operations were carried on in such a manner as to be on a par with the industries which they observe in the city. This, however, is almost never the case. At least 95 per cent. of the farming of the country is carried on in a haphazard manner that would be tolerated in no other industry. The hard physical labor and mental stagnation of most farm life can only be demoralizing to boys and girls who have been trained to other standards.

There should be some way for children who go to the country to make the most of the magnificent opportunities it offers in science, to come in contact with real things, and to co-operate in productive labor. Nature-study as introduced into the great majority of city schools is a dilettante affair. If pupils could do laboratory and museum work in the winter, and in the summer do field work in botany, biology, entomology, and geology in connection with some applied science, the results would be far more satisfactory. Farm architecture, field engineering and machinery, animal husbandry and horticulture, represent the applied side of much that pupils in the elementary and high schools study in the winter. A few hours per day spent in these occupations would furnish recreation and delight to almost all boys and girls. Modern educational theories recognize the value of a variety of handicrafts and try to reproduce in school the era of handicraft for its cultural value. If in addition to this, the pupils could spend their vacation time under the conditions furnished by the most modern rural life of today, they would get further culture out of the industries of the present and an efficiency in getting control of the processes of nature that they do not get in mere recapitulation of the past. In other words, if

there were model farms to be found where children from the elementary and high schools might live during the summer with teachers who knew the practical side of horticulture and animal husbandry as well as botany and biology, the interest of the pupils would be many times multiplied. The same may be said of domestic science, if the child could see the processes of growth and development of the food supply.

A child's vacation should not, of course, be given to science alone, any more than it should be devoted to literature or athletics alone, but it should be spent according to a plan that would harmonize with the curriculum of the school year.

The problem of democratic education is to provide a public-school training that will meet the needs of all classes, which will prepare, so far as it goes, equally well for any kind of life. The objections which might be urged against vacation schools in any but the crowded districts of the city would doubtless be (1) that this would make child-life too strenuous; (2) that it would tend to make education utilitarian and not merely cultural.

To the first objection it may be answered that the healthy child makes his own life more strenuous than anyone can make it for him. He is always active, is almost indefatigable, loves responsibility, and knows perfectly well whether he is accomplishing results or only killing time. He is never more offended than when told that his work is useless in itself, but then it has kept him busy and taught him methods. Up to the beginning of the adolescent period the normal child is not a great reader, but he is incessantly busy and will do a good deal of work without knowing it. Children love the country and its activities because they can comprehend them better than the more complex life of the city.

To the second objection it may be answered that if the vacation school in the country were made an all-the-year-round school and continued through the high-school and university periods, it might easily become a training for the profession of agriculture, but during three or even six months of the year of the elementary and high school it would be a valuable preparation for any kind of life. The proper proportion of training in languages could be

attained by association with French and German teachers; history and literature might be read part of every day; athletics would take care of itself; and social life would be free and natural. Viewed as a general preparation for life, the value of childhood and youth spent in the country has long been known. If this period had been occupied with the best scientific training as well as the discipline of labor at a variety of occupations, the army of farmer boys who go to the city would have included a much greater number of eminent men.

A vacation school started on a model farm near Chicago would be an experiment worth trying. It would certainly be possible to plan a course of from three to six months, so correlated with the curriculum of the School of Education that it would be a most valuable supplement to the work of the winter. Such a school would not be a measure of temporary relief, but a constructive step that would be attended with important consequences in many directions. Life in the country in the spring and summer has no hardships for children, and few for grown people in these days of telephones, electric cars, and rural delivery. A colony of parents surrounding such a school might be a possibility. Certainly it would not be so difficult to get teachers as for the vacation schools in the seventeenth and nineteenth wards of the city. The ever-present need of funds for experiments in education might be partially met by making the school as nearly self-supporting as possible. Practical difficulties in the way of such an experiment would not be found insuperable, if a sufficient number of persons were convinced that it would be a logical step in educational progress.

IS THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM ADJUSTED?

ARTHUR HENRY CHAMBERLAIN
Dean of Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena, Cal.

The thoughts laid down in the following pages are centered around certain ideas which, less than a half-decade ago, began to take definite shape in many minds. These ideas, while as yet somewhat vague, were in the earlier days chaotic indeed. Beginning about the time I have indicated, the student of education could not have failed to notice a certain unrest in matters educational — an unrest voicing and manifesting itself in somewhat different manner and with more positive expression than formerly.

I am likely to be reminded that this unrest took shape fully three decades past, and that a constant change and a steady advancement have been noticeable ever since. Some are perhaps willing to go farther and say that since the times of John Locke and Comenius, of Rousseau and Herbart, of Froebel and Pestalozzi, educational thought and practice have been ever moving toward a higher level. More than this, we should probably all agree that the fundamental principles laid down in Aristotle's *Ethics,* or in Plato's *Republic,* are not transcended at the present day. Granting this, however, we must admit that the past few years have wrought an additional change on the face of educational affairs. True, many will not see this, or, seeing, will not admit. These, however, must eventually do so.

For a long time past it has been the secondary school that has first received the attention of educators, when a new order of things seemed imminent or desirable in the public school. So in England, in Germany, and in America has the secondary condition been discussed. The full force and significance of these discussions are now being felt by what is by far the most important and vital part of the whole educational organization of the present — the elementary public school of America.

Mr. Michael E. Sadler, a thorough English educationalist, has thrown much light upon the problem in his report on "The Unrest in Secondary Education in Germany, and Elsewhere." Other prominent German, English, and French schoolmen have agitated the problem, while with us as exponents of a broader elementary-school curriculum may be mentioned Dr. William T. Harris, Mr. John Fiske, Colonel Francis W. Parker, President Nicholas Murray Butler, President Charles W. Eliot, Dr. G. Stanley Hall, Professor William James, Dr. Frank McMurry, and Professor John Dewey, not to speak of a host of others. These men have, each in his own way, been insistent in demanding in our school work something that shall be real rather than artificial, vital rather than indifferent. They have pleaded for an education such as has been aimed at, but is as yet far short of realization.

Upon certain of the most important and fundamental principles underlying our educational fabric there is and has been an almost unanimous agreement. It is only when we as individuals come to the practice of these principles — only when an application is made — that a serious disagreement is noticeable. Indeed, it is only too frequently the case that no application is attempted. How clearly in the past has the purpose of the school been stated, and how almost universal has been the acceptance of the definition! In actual practice, however, the work has not been in harmony with the stated purpose of the school. There has been little contention as to the function which the child is to serve when he becomes part of the world in which he shall eventually find himself. Our methods as practiced, however, would hardly be recognizable as having any foundation in the thought of future citizenship. Theory and practice are at variance, and as a result violence has been done the child; the past has laid its hand upon the school, and we have held to old courses of study, dusty with layers of tradition or mildewed by decades of bigotry.

In some instances, to be sure, the better in the old education has been displaced by the less valuable in the so-called *new*. Subject has been added to subject, scheme to scheme, creed to creed, until pupils and teachers alike find themselves in an educational

maze from which only the freedom of the outside world can extricate them.

This unrest, then, of which I have been speaking, is felt from the kindergarten through the university. From what at first was a feeling there has developed a conviction that our schools have too long existed for the benefit of the few. The upper grades are administered in the interest of the 6 per cent. who pass from the primary years; high-school courses of study are carried on with the view of meeting the requirements of a fortunate 1 per cent. who come to them, while college and university curricula take into account only a meager number, who, through circumstances or by birth, are enabled to avail themselves of the advantages of a higher education. What our elementary schools should furnish above all else is the elements of such culture- and thought-bearing subjects as shall the better introduce the pupil into the social, the industrial, and the moral life of the day, and of which each is a part. The school of elementary grade today is a long call from squaring with its avowed mission in this regard.

The great mass of boys and girls who early are compelled to take up the problems of actual life should find in the school that which has been prepared expressly for them and which best meets their needs. They find, instead, work better suited to those who, whether they will or not, enter and take advantage of upper-school work. With a proper adjustment of elementary-school courses, all that great mass of pupils who leave below high-school age would go out better prepared to take part in the life before them, and many who now leave school at an early age would continue their work into and beyond the high school.

To reach the great mass of boys and girls, and not only to reach them, but to keep them in school for a somewhat longer period, is then our problem. The tendency of educational thought is toward this end. His tuition in school is much too short for the boy to acquire those elements which make for moral uplift, industrial knowledge, social ideals, and ability of leadership. You appreciate, I am sure, that I have in mind the unnumbered many who progress no farther than the elementary school.

Various are the causes of non-continuance in school. Poverty,

sickness, overcrowding, poor enforcement of attendance laws, inability to keep pace with a given class, indifference, all conspire to lessen the tuition in school. More than all else, however, and deeper and more fundamental than these, is the fact that *the school does not furnish that which is demanded in actual life,* after the pupil enters the latter. The supposition has been that the school is the medium through which the pupil is enabled to determine the line of work, occupation, or profession he is best fitted to enter, after first bestowing upon him a general culture universally essential. Should this be the correct view, which it probably is in part only, the present courses of study would not work to the desired end.

How, then, shall the proper adjustment of the elementary-school curriculum be brought about? The answer, it seems to me, is writ so large that "he who runs may read," although the actual work of adjustment is far from accomplished. It is indeed but begun. The standard of the school has sprung from the belief that knowledge is power; that facts educate; that mental gymnastics produces the man. The standard of the real school must be found in actual life. It must be based upon the natural tendencies of the child; it must grow out of a knowledge of the boy as a social being; it must recognize the home, the community, the factory, the shop, the farm; civil, industrial, social, and moral institutions. Any curriculum worthy a place in our elementary school must be built upon a clear conception that reason stands superior to fact; that expression is of more value than technique; that human sympathy transcends in value the printed pages of a book.

> "The works of God are all for naught,
> Unless our eyes in seeing
> See, underneath the thing, the thought
> That animates its being."

To say where the adjustment should begin would be an almost hopeless task. In arithmetic and language, in history, in geography, in reading, and in the more fortunate schools even in nature-study, manual training, and art subjects, the husk is too often mistaken for the kernel. The form rather than the content

is made the chief issue; the symbol is made to stand for the thing. The spirit is lost, the letter is the goal.

In mathematics and language, object-teaching furnished an advanced step over the older methods. But what do we find? In arithmetic, for example, to use a crude illustration, the $2 + 2 = 4$ problem, typical of the abstract, lifeless form of work so long adhered to, was changed to the so-called concrete form, and read, *two apples and two apples are four apples.* A moment's thought, however, will convince us that the latter form of the problem lies nearly or quite as far from the concrete as did the former. Here, too, it grows out of a mere statement of fact and not of the life-interests of the pupil. It should find its application in an immediate need. "A thing is concrete when it is in the midst of its meanings; a word to be concrete must not be disassociated, but in the context, in the midst of its settings."[1]

Look at it from whatever side you will, the idea is forced upon you that the curriculum of the elementary school is not calculated to meet the demands of the boy and girl. The child may be able to tell you the least common multiple of 4, 8, and 16, or the greatest common divisor of 3, 6, and 9, but can he tell why in New York city the market price per dozen of oranges is greater than that of apples, or the height of a pile of wood containing two cords if the pile is eight feet long and eight feet wide? And the saddest part of the whole matter is that, after he closes his arithmetic, the boy will probably never have need for the facts he has learned regarding the least common multiple or greatest common divisor.

In language work the child may be able to supply the missing words in the text, but does he contribute a readable paper in the history class, or speak intelligently when making an explanation? In reading, the words may be spoken, but is the selection one having any connection with the child's needs; will it broaden and deepen his sympathies, extend his knowledge of things worth while, and force him to feel, and be, and live his better self? In history, in geography, how often do we find the time put upon vague, indefinite things, or those of little value; facts and

[1] Borrowed from Professor Frank M. McMurry.

figures, dates and places, locations, boundaries, and battles! Each of these has a place, but to the grade pupil so much can be given which is rich and vitalizing, that great care must be exercised in the choosing. It is no longer a question of what is good in education; it is a question rather of what is best.

In his recent article "Experiments upon Children,"[2] Dr. G. Stanley Hall speaks of the present as a "metamorphic period" in education, and then goes on to say:

> A mere list of the fads now in practice in various places would make a long article. Idiotic busy work in the lower grades; learning to read without knowing the alphabet, so that occasionally children old enough to use a dictionary have to make up their arrears of knowledge to do so; blob drawing; typewriting and shorthand in the high school; four foreign languages for girls and boys in the early teens who have almost nothing in their minds to express in the vernacular; Latin and algebra in the grammar school; wood- and iron-work in manual-training courses that are wooden in their intelligence and iron in their inflexibility; sharply demarkated schools and theories of physical training which will not harmonize and give the children the benefit of the best in all; metaphysics of the effete German school for kindergartners, who ought to know something of nursing as now taught to high-school graduates, and to know the child's body which at that age most needs care; interest in the finished product, which is used for show, rather than in educational values; everywhere, and perhaps especially in English, content and substance subordinated to form; method whipped up to a syllabub that suggests some analogy between the graduates of certain normal schools and the mediæval barber's apprentice, who could set up for himself only when he could whip two ounces of soap into barrels of lather; the mechanism of marks and hearing lessons instead of teaching; the college dominating the high school, which is really the people's college, with its excessive entrance examinations; distraction among the multiplicity of different topics — these are some of the dangers, of which some are universal and others dominant in certain places.

While we may not subscribe to all that Dr. Hall says, we should at least be in accord with the spirit of his message. The curriculum has indeed been broadened, while at the same time it has not been made sufficiently deep. In just the degree school work does not furnish the power, does not put the boy in possession of himself, just so far is it failing in its function.

Perhaps no better conception of an elementary curriculum

[2] In *Good Housekeeping* for October, 1903, p. 338.

can be had than to grasp the idea of a socialized course of study. This means at once a change from present methods. The so-called traditional subjects are thought-subjects mainly. We have said, and truly, that the book lessons did not meet the demands of the developing child, as little expression accompanied the learning process. There was ample impression; there was no expression. In order to get the most from our history, or arithmetic, or science, the motor element must come in. While the introduction of hand-work in school has done much good, we have here swung as far to the opposite side; and while expression is not lacking, the thought-element plays all too small a part in our manual-training courses. Whether with work at the bench, in sewing, in the cooking-room, in the various hand-work processes and in the art subjects, the power to make or construct is not supplemented by the power to think. This last is due in large measure to the fact that for the most part the child is not allowed to put himself into the work. He follows arbitrarily some set of exercises or a fixed curriculum, and performs in a more or less mechanical manner a prescribed course of work; and this without particular reference to its fitness for the individual boy or girl.

It is John Ruskin who says:

> You can teach a man to draw a straight line and to cut one, to strike a curved line and to carve it, and to copy and carve any number of given lines with admirable speed and perfect precision, and you find his work perfect of its kind; but if you ask him to think about any of these forms, to consider if he cannot find any better in his own head, he stops; his execution becomes hesitating; he thinks, and, ten to one, he thinks wrong; ten to one, he makes a mistake in the first touch he gives his work as a thinking being. But you have made a man of him for all that. He was only a machine before — an animated tool.

If it is true that a lesson in history is really valuable only when out of the data and lists of facts the pupils draw conclusions and reason from cause to effect or from effect to cause, seeking an explanation of laws and principles in the life of the day, so may we believe that in the manual processes the thought-side must be emphasized by reasoning out the why, and by seeking to develop new or independent methods of procedure.

As Professor Jackman puts it: "The first demand of the mind is for motive." [3]

May not work of a constructive nature, the industrial processes, properly carried on, furnish one of the foundation-stones for the future primary-school curriculum? Dr. Dewey says that the curriculum should be "so selected and organized as to provide the material for affording the child a consciousness of the world in which he has to play a part, and the relations he has to meet." Accepting this, are not the media of the shop, the laboratory, the studio, the garden, best suited to bring about the desired results?

Dr. Dewey does not stand alone in his criticism of the present-day practices in the elementary school nor in his suggestions as to the remedy. In an address before the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association at Cincinnati in February, 1903, President Eliot said: "I believe there is as much mental training in manual work as in any book whatsoever;" and again: "I believe there is more value in manual work than in nine-tenths of the arithmetic in the schools."

Dr. Frank McMurry places *thoughtful* hand-work at the very base of elementary-school education, and in his book, *A Broader Elementary Education,* Dr. Gordy points out the function of manual training in the elementary curriculum. *Industrial-Social Education,* by William Baldwin, shows how the school work may be made to group around the industrial processes. Teachers generally seem to be recognizing the fact that in no way can we so well form a school that shall be parallel with, rather than angular to, the actual, every-day life of the child and the adult, as to adjust our programs to the industrial and social forms that go to make up our every-day existence.

Is it not easy to see, then, that we have been making, through our primary-school curricula, a sort of life in the schoolroom different from that actually existing outside of it; a life not at all real and certainly not ideal? The lack of interest has been mainly on account of this. With a program that shall fit the child's needs will come an increased desire to continue in school,

[3] *Elementary School Teacher,* Vol. V, p. 60.

a live interest in its many problems, an increased student attitude. Then, too, will the child see more clearly his relations to his fellows, his individual duties and responsibilities, and, while recognizing his own worth, will at the same time appreciate the meaning and significance of the community, the society, and the social whole of which he is only one of the units in the composition.

In summing up, I would not be understood as saying that every element in the present-day curriculum of the elementary school should be stricken out. Indeed, I have tried to show that many times the older, more conservative thought stands superior to a modern whim or tendency. But in the main the content of our school courses are not such as best meet the demands laid upon them by the mass of school children. So far different is the atmosphere of the school from that of real life that the pupil does not recognize the school elements as having vital bearing or application outside the school. In the school he works for show, for standing, and, while ready with the facts, loses or never finds their true meaning or application.

THE PARENTS' ASSOCIATION

MRS. FRANK HUGH MONTGOMERY
Secretary

[*Extract from Report of the December Meeting.*]

The subject for discussion, "The Methods and Principles of Teaching in the University Elementary and High Schools," was introduced by the Chairman of the Education Committee, Mrs. John O'Connor. She explained why the subject had been chosen and how it was in the line of the work of the Education Committee.

Mrs. O'Connor was followed by Mr. Wilbur S. Jackman, who traced briefly the development of the principles and methods of teaching, and showed that the methods must vary with every individual and locality; that the motive became of extreme importance and its consideration was ever coming up anew. The chief thing was the development of responsibility. Mr. Jackman spoke of the excursion. This gave the child an admirable opportunity to learn how to handle himself. The excursion presented the material, and his life in the schoolroom gave expression to his ideas.

As Mrs. Henry Kuh was unable to be present, Mrs. O'Connor read the paper which she had prepared. Mrs. Kuh said that she came to ask for information rather than because she had any to impart. She raised interesting questions in regard to the value of excursions, dramatics, and the amount of time to be devoted to them.

Mr. Owen was the next speaker. He said that the high school was between the upper and nether millstones. The college or university was the upper, with certain requirements which the high school had to meet. The nether was the elementary school. The most remarkable change in education in America had come in elementary schools. For many reasons, it had had a chance to

develop. The high school must become a good experiment station under reasonable control. It must have (1) well-trained teachers; (2) a flexible organization; (3) parents who would permit a certain amount of experimentation and would have confidence. Let the parents investigate and contribute.

Mr. MacClintock, the next speaker, expressed his smypathy with Mr. Owen that the high school was not yet a place for free experimentation. He raised various questions in regard to practice-teaching, the existing grouping of the children, the autonomy of the grade teacher and the special teacher, correlation, and the place of the arts.

Mr. Belfield affirmed that the method of the high school in manual training was not to make things. It was not a trade school. The name, which indicated the training of the hand alone, was a misnomer; the object was mental training. It was true that the pupil often learned a great deal that was useful and could earn his livelihood, perhaps, as a result. The school stood for accuracy of thought, honesty of work, clean thinking, development of judgment and will-power. The great trouble with the American boy was a weak will.

Mr. Errant thought that everyone realized that there was something to be worked out. The high school must solve its own problem. He considered that in the manual training there might be a closer connection between things learned and the application. He wished that some of the funds which had recently been given to the University might be had for the working out of these problems.

The meeting adjourned.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The Distractions of Technique

Teachers are too much concerned with unessential details. They asphyxiate themselves and the pupils with the minutiæ of technique and with the infinitesimal divisions of subject-matter. Expression through language barely begins, when the thought that inspired it is drowned by a multiplicity of irrelevant facts relating to form; forthwith the emphasis goes to "language as such"!

With the first note of song begin the hammer and bang of drill upon meaningless symbols, standing for musicless sounds that give no voice to the melody in the soul.

Pictures of light, of color, and of form are imprisoned within by the barriers of technique; and while life is harrassed and wasted upon the barren mechanics of brush and pencil and paper, the pictures shrivel and dry, and forever fade from the face of the artistic imagination. This, all that there may be "art for art's sake."

The slow germination of thinking about the proportions and the relations of things is scarcely started, when technical processes, with shadowless symbols divert the mind from its natural channels, and endless drill finally results in permanent impairment of original mathematical power. That vision through the evolution of which the mind might have the means to clarify the world around about it, through the chatter of formulæ, becomes confused and uncertain, and the primeval chaos of the world remains with us as with the savage.

The Chief Offenders

There is hardly a subject in the curriculum where thought is not hampered, stultified, and often obliterated through the efforts to enforce technique. And the greatest sinners are the technicians themselves. They thrust their own refined method upon their pupils, whether they be in the university, the secondary or the elementary school; appar-

ently forgetful of the conditions under which they themselves acquired it — if, indeed, they have ever done aught but copy from another.

Technique the Outcome of Thought

The technique of a subject is the easiest part about it. The natural relations of process and method to thought are such, that it is doubtful if any normal individual actually possessed of a clear idea ever failed because he could not give it appropriate form through expression.

Why Failures in Technique

The reason why we cannot draw is that we do not get the image which it is the province of a drawing to represent. Our pencil stops precisely where our seeing fails. Anyone can trace with a pencil or brush the outlines of a figure already drawn; there is no reason why he should not trace the same lines without the presence of the picture except in the fact that the mental image is missing.

It is not more difficult from the motor side to model a vase or even a human figure than it is to spread a slice of bread with butter and then eat it. By some mistake, certainly, the latter process, to date, has escaped the keen vision of the technician and we have learned how to eat in peace. When the drill-master discovers the oversight, folks who eat will probably become as rare as sculptors.

How Train for Technique

Not that people become technically correct all at once, nor can it be denied that there is necessity for the education of the nerves and muscles; but "the soul is the thing" which determines the correctness and the ease with which the training may be acquired. Teachers who would train pupils in writing start at the wrong place when they begin with the arm movement, and, to train in speech, they have something to do besides watching the glottis.

Discouragement of the Pupils

In spite of the struggle for form, it is seldom that the results are satisfactory, and pupils give up the striving with feelings of relief from the intolerable grind. Language, art, music, dramatics, writing, spelling, and mathematics all appear to stand as obstacles in the way of what the pupils would be rather than as the direct means thereto. It is

only when one becomes inspired with his own message that, freed from the drudgery of drill, he turns to these forms of expression and, selecting the one most natural and effective, delivers himself through a technique of his own. One utterance giving voice or form to something that must be said — something that must take shape lest the world suffer — will do more for technique than all the "formal grammar," "formal arithmetic," "formal art," and "formal everything else" that can be crammed into the years of school life.

Pupil's Right to His Own Technique

We are just finding out that a child should "be himself" when he talks, but the discovery has gone little farther. It is, however, also true that he should give himself forth in song as in speech; in art forms as well as in writing; in poetry, too, when his inspired thought strikes the octave. The results attained justify no further waste of years in trying to make the pupil absorb a literary style from someone who wrote a "masterpiece" — a style for which the pupil has no thoughts to fit. When the notation of their own melodies that naturally grow just because children find things beautiful, good, and harmonious, take the place of the note-chasing that is now down on the program as "music" — save the mark — we shall find that our soil, too, will produce musicians.

What's the Remedy?

What is the trouble? Too much of littleness, of narrowness — too many minutiæ! Breadth, breadth, breadth, is needed! More superficiality; less thoroughness! Greater appreciation of huge crudities; less complacency with finicky niceties! More sympathy with movement; less emphasis upon sand-papered results! More attention to the pupil's power of original thinking; less stress upon his ability to copy! (The only original researcher is the child under school age; then he selects his subject and treats it at will. As a postgraduate, his topic is usually assigned, and he generally copies his method.) Less worry about what the pupil can say; more interest in what he can do! Smaller regard for what he knows; increased esteem for his influence! Less exacting as to obedience; a more careful nurture of personal responsibility! Not such

assiduous industry with the "muckrake;" some contemplation of the "crown" overhead!

W. S. J.

Educational Experiments

Two articles appear in the pages of this number of the *Elementary School Teacher* descriptive of experiments in education: one a prospect merely, and the other a review of an institution which is long past the experimental stage, and yet is still spoken of by many in tones which prophesy a defeat of which the school has never yet given the slightest signs of verification. Both the farm school sketched by Mrs. Hill and the unique English school, Bedales, will probably fall under the stricture laid upon another attempt to make a school conform to an ideal in education, by a public-school man who said of the school in question: "Frankly, I do not like your school. It is doing what we never can do under our public-school conditions. Such a school can never be thrown open to any but the favored few. Ideal, I confess it to be, but an ideal that never can be realized for the masses. Your equipment, space, and small classes furnish conditions that the public can never afford." Similar objections are likely to arise in the minds of the readers as they peruse the articles referred to.

The Function of the Private School

It is a serious objection. The very depth of bitterness with which we hear it uttered indicates a corresponding keenness of sympathy for the needs and problems of the public schools which are first and last the chief concern of all of us. If it were not for that concern, some of these experimental stations would not exist. They should bear the same relation to the pressing needs of the big public-school system that the agricultural experiment stations do to the farming communities. The experimenter has a fund wherewith to work out his hypothesis. He has apparatus and time to devote to these objects alone. He finds, we will say, that by the cultivation of certain colonies of bacteria as nodules on leguminous plants his bacteria greatly increase the nitrogen-appropriating power of the plants. Success assured, the information and the materials are at

the disposal of the farmers, the latter delivered ready for use like so many precious yeast-cakes.

The Outcome for the Community

The farmers working under pressure which precludes the full experimental use of their powers still are the gainers by the experiment of the specialist. The skilful and progressive farmer returns his report and practical suggestions from the field to the station. Just so the teacher whose hands are tied, comparatively, by her scanty appropriation for materials, and her large classes of children, cannot rush into work demanding apparatus and freedom until she sees clearly where the work will lead; what it means in power, in enrichment of the lives of her children. But these points proved and her own soul convinced, there is always a way of convincing those who can aid in changing the conditions under which she works.

The Fixity of a System, or the Parable of the Baker

There was once a young man who was taken in by the manager of a large factory to be trained up in the business. He was the son of one of the officers of the company. The young man went rapidly from one division to the next. At last, after working successively as an ordinary workman in the sifting, weighing, mixing, molding, and baking rooms, he was given charge of a room. He soon saw a chance to improve methods and lessen labor, having been himself brought up in those schools (beginning with the kindergarten) that develop initiative. He reported his plan to the manager, and was permitted to make the necessary changes, which, of course, involved the learning of new ways by the workmen. Soon another discovery was made, all in the line of progress, and another permission and another reconstruction followed in due order. A third proposition came up to the manager involving extensive changes in machinery and operation. This the manager vetoed, arguing that the loss of time, expense of changes, and friction in getting the workmen adjusted to new habits would overbalance the economic advantage of the proposed improvement.

The Application

Just as in the machine known as manufactory, so in the social machine of public school, there is such interlacing and interlocking of parts and functions that each change comes hard, and the managers fear the overthrow while really indorsing the idea involved. Changes involving the reduction of numbers, special training of teachers, and installation of tools have to come when the utility and eventual economy of these things have been established in a smaller and freer institution. So, while welcoming criticism and modification, let us not declare at the outset that these experimental schools and schemes are useless or worse than useless because we cannot at once see the possibility of making them contribute to the education of every child in the public schools. There never was an ideal realized that was not at one stage of the game stamped "utopian." The whole mighty advance from passive to active education has been in the face of obstacles generally pronounced "utopian," fifteen years ago.

Possibilities not Impossibilities

In this very idea carried out in one way at Bedales, to be carried out in another at Wheeling, in another at the George Junior Republic, and in other ways in half a dozen schools we might mention, there are a few fundamental propositions: that real work may be made a stimulus to scientific study; that the community of working, playing, and learning individuals, both children and adults is the most normal school, ethically and intellectually, and certainly physically; that such a school will not only conduce to mental and physical health, but will in a very practical way offer a new force to stem the tide of concentration in cities by offering interests and control in country pursuits; to refute the doctrine that these ideals are impossible of realization, save under certain specified conditions to be had only in private enterprises with private funds, we quote a few instances: the gardening at homes and schools, of Dayton, Ohio; the garden of the Drummond Vacation School, of Chicago; the gardens of the Chicago Bureau of Charities on outlying vacant tracts; the gardens in that most crowded modern city of Berlin, lying in a new part of the

city where the paterfamilias takes his family of a Sunday afternoon, to work, and to eat under their own vine and fig tree; the many, many school gardens that are being conducted with intellectual profit, and some remuneration, in towns and cities and in country districts. All go to show that, given the great appreciation of a demonstrated good, there is more than one mode of realization.

B. P.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Culture Readers. No. II. By ELLEN E. K. WARNER. Chicago: D. Appleton & Co.

This book has the merit of making the first page of reading really worth while. Throughout the book other pages are worth reading. The pity is that all are not. To tell a commonplace thing in a commonplace way is not literature. To read such is not education. For instance, the following, quoted in part, occupies the greater part of two pages:

1. "Well, my dear, what are you doing?"
2. "I am sewing a mitten."
3. "Oh no, that is not sewing. That is knitting. Who began it for you?"
4. "My mamma began it. She is making a pair of mittens for me," etc.

To expend the time and effort which a little child exerts to read a page of printed matter deserves results which should be to him in proportion to that effort. Every such effort should leave the impression that it is pleasant to know how to read. The foregoing quotation is not stimulating to further effort. The child has got no thought which is worth getting. What is the purpose of reading, if not to gain thought valuable in its picture, information, or fun?

Some teachers use phonics as a conscious help to reading. Others use phonics with quite another purpose. Many teachers desire to keep out of the children's minds the processes of learning so far as possible. For this reason the lists of phonetic words should not be placed in the text which the children read, but in a separate place, that the teacher may use her discretion in her use of it.

The publishers are to be congratulated on the attractive print, paper, and pictures which make up the book.

ELSIE AMY WYGANT.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
School of Education

LARRA'S *Partir á Tiempo.* Edited by EDWIN B. NICHOLS. New York: American Book Co. Pp. 66. $0.40.

One of the most popular comedies of this leading Spanish writer, and the only edition of the play published in America. It tells the story of a young man who, discovering his growing attachment for the wife of his benefactor, departs in time to retain his loyalty to both. It is characterized by graceful humor, keen observation, and rare qualities of style. It affords ample opportunity for the study of colloquial Spanish, and for the acquisition of a wide vocabulary, and though slight in itself, it is especially suited for class reading. It is the most recent addition to the constantly growing series of "Modern Spanish Readings" now being published by the American Book Co.